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ABSTRACT

A conference for Deans of Instruction of Junior and Community Colleges consisted of prepared papers and special interest discussions, with nationally known resource people available for consultation. This report of the conference includes the contributed papers and summaries of the special interest discussion groups. The prepared papers discuss instructional accountability, institutional research, pre- and in-service training, and instructional changes in two-year colleges. Appendices include evaluation, a questionnaire regarding the feasibility of a workshop, and a list of participants. (RS)

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ROLE OF THE ACADEMIC DEAN IN IMPLEMENTING ACCOUNTABILITY: ANATOMY OF A CONFERENCE FOR DEANS OF INSTRUCTION IN TWO-YEAR COLLEGES

Sponsored By: National Laboratory for Higher Education
Durham, North Carolina

Date: April 27-28, 1972

UNIVERSITY OF CALIF.
LOS ANGELES

MAY 11 1973

CLEARINGHOUSE FOR
JUNIOR COLLEGE
INFORMATION

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Role of the Academic Dean in Implementing Accountability: Anatomy of a Conference for Deans of Instruction in Two-Year Colleges.

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INTRODUCTION

On April 27 and 28, 1972, the Junior and Community College Division of the National Laboratory for Higher Education (NLHE) sponsored a Conference for Deans of Instruction at the Ramada Inn, Durham, North Carolina.

Announcements of the workshop went out on April 5, only slightly more than three weeks in advance of the meeting. Despite this very short notice, thirty-one persons from twelve different states attended. Another one hundred indicated enthusiasm about the conference and its unique structure. (Appendix A.)

In keeping with the purpose of NLHE, the workshop was designed to promote constructive change in both the nature of the topics selected and the actual manner in which the conference was conducted. Topics were of two different types: prepared papers and special interest discussions. The selection of the subjects for the prepared papers was based on an informal survey of deans in attendance at the annual meeting of the American Association of Junior Colleges held in Dallas, Texas, February, 1972. The subjects for the special interest sessions were based on a survey of those persons actually attending the Durham conference.

Most conferences follow the pattern of conventional teaching, with oral presentations by speakers (teachers) while participants (students) take notes. This conference took a different approach. Instead of speeches, nationally known resource

people were asked to prepare papers for reaction and these were given to participants during registration. Conference time was optimally utilized since the time normally spent in listening to presentations was spent in meaningful discussions with the authors of the papers.

To further encourage and facilitate active participation among conferees, enrollment was limited and time schedules were arranged to maintain small discussion groups.

As reflected by the evaluation forms completed by the participants (Appendix B), the conference was very successful.

Participants' reactions have been analyzed, and their suggestions made will be incorporated into future NLHE sponsored conferences. The anticipated result is a more rapid diffusion of ideas and innovations as well as the sharing of solutions to common problems.

CONTRIBUTED PAPERS

INSTRUCTIONAL ACCOUNTABILITY IN EDUCATION

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Within the past few years, the word "accountability" has found its way into the language and literature of education. Unfortunately, however, it has taken a "bad bounce" and become more or less synonymous with performance contracting. It is a pity that such an honorable term, used with dignity in other professional fields, should fall into such narrow and restrictive usage. The concept of accountability has much to offer education, educational institutions, educators, and the several publics they attempt to serve. This short paper provides a partial foundation for examining the term "accountability" in a broad context and assesses its application in the educational setting.

Because many of today's uses of the term "accountability" have taken it into corners for which it is ill-designed, it is helpful to start at the beginning by examining its definition as found in typical English usage dictionaries. It is interesting to note that the term did not appear in Webster's second edition but is found in the third edition. The definitions of "accountability" vary modestly from dictionary to dictionary, but several common synonyms and referents are evident. They include "liable," "responsible," and subject to giving an "account." A close relationship in meaning is found between the words "responsible" and "accountable," particularly as they are used in public administration and business management.

Accountability in public administration has designated an obligation to make some form of public report or to be subject to a public audit concerning the utilization of public funds. Historically, the accountability was from a representative of the monarch to the monarch, but with the overthrow of the sovereignty concept in governmental form, the obligation is now--more typically--from the administrators in executive offices and/or branches to the legislature. This use of the term to identify an obligation to submit to an outside audit for a detailed accounting of the use and disbursement of public funds would appear to express the concept of "contracted" learning as proposed by Lessinger. Some form of "audit" or "public report" also reflects the "extrinsic" or "external" control in elementary systems analysis.

The other typical or usual use of the word accountability defines an obligation to report and/or explain the fulfillment of some performance for which responsibility was accepted, and for which some authority was delegated from a superior in an organization. Most management writers discuss the concepts of authority, responsibility, and accountability as interrelated aspects of one's assignment within an organization. Briefly--one accepts the responsibility to fulfill some function (administrative or operative) and achieve some ends by performing some tasks or doing some work. Along with that responsibility comes some delegation of authority to select a method of work, utilize the resources of the organization, direct the work of others, requisition materials, etc. Accountability is the

process of explaining or reporting how effectively the authority was utilized in achieving the objectives for which one assumed responsibility. Authority is delegated to provide the power to act; responsibility defines the anticipated outcomes or performances; and accountability is the explanation due on the effectiveness of the work. In this business management usage, accountability flows up within the organization, and hence has an intrinsic or internal "build-in" control feature about it.

Both of these historical uses have direct application to the school situation, particularly the schools and colleges which operate on public funds. There are both a budget-assessment and auditing function to see that funds are spent according to the allocations, an accountability requirement with external control, and an internal accountability, of sorts, through the organizational chain of command.

Neither application is pure, however, as funds other than those provided by the supporting governmental agencies are commonly found and utilized within the college environment--particularly tuition funds--and the line of command within the academic side of the institution is far less clear and direct than it is in business.

There is, for example, considerable opportunity for disagreement about whether the dean serves to represent the faculty and their decisions, or whether the dean leads and directs the faculty in the achievement of collegiate objectives. Certainly the body-of-scholars concept of the college places different emphasis in the hands of its "operatives"--faculty members--

than does the business enterprise. Because the environment is characterized by highly educated people operating "alone" with students, the conventional line command process is not clearly applied and perhaps not applicable.

The possible differences between the locus of responsibility and the source of authority poses an interesting enigma for accountability in education. If one gets his classroom authority from the president, vice-presidents, deans, and department heads in the normal flow of legal (statutory or regulatory) power but feels responsible to one's colleagues, discipline, and students--what is the locus and direction of accountability? Can accountability apply and work effectively in an organization where responsibility and authority have distinctly different referents? Or, is the educational institution really a line organization and in order for control to occur it must begin to behave like one?

There is also a question raised by the unfortunate "locking on" of the Office of Education to the concept of contract learning or performance contracting. Because of the ill-timed, hurry-up, short-term crash effort to fund and research several performance contracting operations, we are now faced with a partial research report, based on part of the situations, barren of meaningful interpretation, and of dubious and/or questionable value The Batelle research report has been delayed inexplicably, it seems.

This highly publicized effort on performance contracting and the concomitant emphasis on norm-referenced skill development measures has widened the gulf between the "soft-headed"

humanists and the "mechanistic" behaviorists who have been protecting their respective sections of the school yard since the historic gestalt/behaviorist rift of two generations past and before. The split is widening, at least in print, and the direct and continuing association of accountability with cognitive learning at lower taxonomical levels has tended to obscure the potential values and meaning of "accountability." Those humanists who deplore behavioristic values now attack accountability as though it were a synonym for Magerian behaviorism.

This vigorous confusion is in direct contradiction to the generic implications of the term accountability. It also tends to arbitrarily decry attempts to fit a "determined" system model to all things educational, whether they be administrative, operative, or supportive. A determined system is one in which a subsequent state can be accurately determined from an existing state. Determined systems are generally mechanical devices like internal combustion engines, where the operation of any subsequent part of the engine can be determined from its present stage in the operating cycle. Determined systems are relatively uncommon in living organisms or organizations, although certain features can be perceived in highly autocratic or bureaucratic situations. The bunching of behaviorism, simple determined systems, and accountability into a common-concept bag confuses rather than clarifies the issue.

Systems and system procedures are control-oriented concepts with control taking two different forms:

1. Homeostatic--keeping things as they are or as programmed for change.

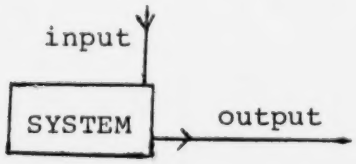
2. Innovative--keeping more viable systems in control while permitting relatively free introduction and test of innovative plans, within the wisdom and creative capacity of those controlling the system.

Before turning to the implications of these models for education and accountability, it is important to note that certain kinds of control (intrinsic or extrinsic) and kinds of systems (determined or self organizing) tend to occur together, and that nearly all systems (other than the strictly determined ones) provide for unmeasured input and unmeasured outputs to occur. In addition, for systems perspectives, control works as meaningfully on process as on product, and the term "system" implies some elements very close to our earlier views of accountability.

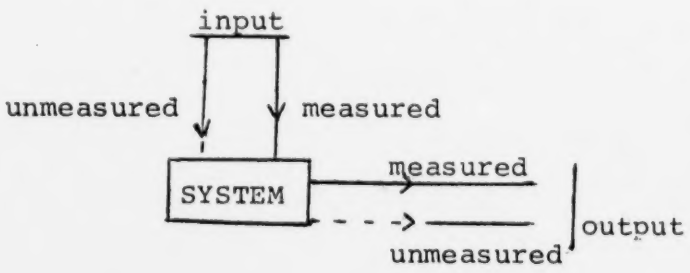
In Florida, for example, the State Department of Education is basing accreditation upon the school district's performance in relation to its own (the school board's) objectives in two of three areas: status, process, and product. Virtually every district has adopted, for the current period, accreditation based on status and process. Status measures are the amount, type, and utilization of space and facilities; process measures are the kinds of activities undertaken in relation to the provision of education for the students. At the present time, the State is working on norm-referenced tests to be administered in basic skill areas; when applied, these will be a beginning of product assessment measures which are to be partially implemented in 1973.

All three of these kinds of measurement of system condition are permissible under the generic interpretation of the word "accountable" and in the systems analysis if in a slightly different but parallel configuration.

Basically, systems analysis is approached through a series of expository diagrams like those below.



Single control



Measured and Unmeasured elements

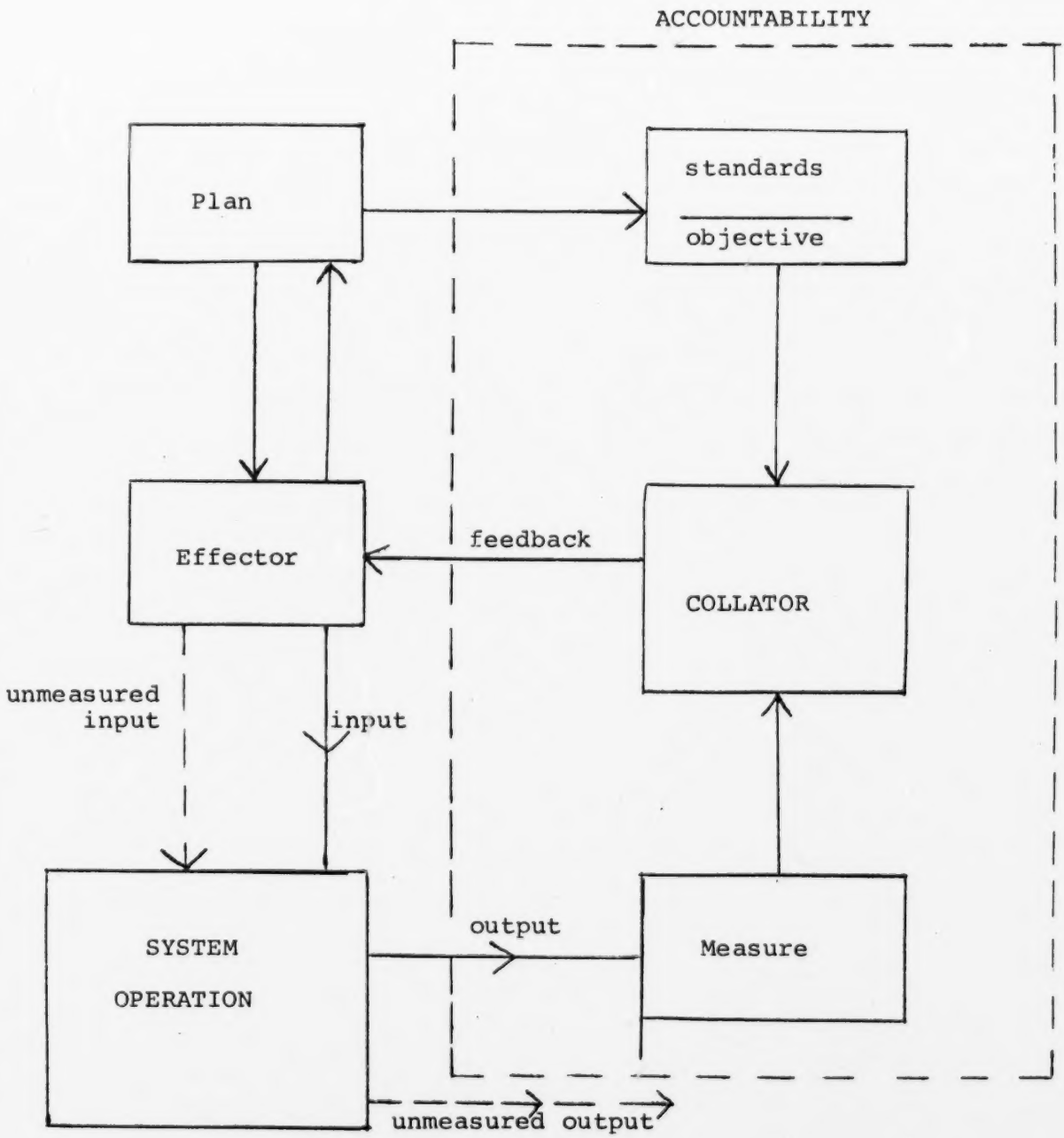
Neither of these diagrams shows a controlling function--the simple line drawings indicate that something comes into the system operation and something comes out. We assume that they are different as a result of the system or process activity.

To control the system, certain elements must be added. In the process of these additions, the notion of where accountability fits becomes evident.

In the figure on page ten several boxes or features have been added. The plan box provides the basis for objectives, goals, or standards. It determines resource allocation and priorities. The effector box is related to the power (human, organizational, mechanical or otherwise) that alters the input to and the operating characteristics of the system. The measurement itself can change the product. The standards box sets

forth the specific outcomes anticipated--whether they be in quality, quantity, cost, or other form. The collative function is a process through which expectations are compared with actual outputs and the difference value fed back to the effector function for possible system adjustment. The "accountability" concept as we've described it is a combination of the objectives setting, measuring, and feedback aspects of the model.

The unmeasured inputs and outputs may be related to some of the "humanistic" aspects of education. Their exclusion may be accepted or uneasiness may develop because they cannot or will not be measured and put into the "controlled system model.


ACCOUNTABILITY
Plan
standards
objective
Effector
feedback
COLLATOR
unmeasured
input
input
SYSTEM
OPERATION
output
Measure
unmeasured output

To apply the concept of accountability to the instructional task requires more clarification of role and function than clarification of concept. Who is the effector in the process? Where do the standards come from? Who does the measuring? Who performs the collative function? Who provides the "negative" feedback for system process correction? Who provides the planning?

How much of our anxiety and debate within education is related to fear or anxiety about this "control" activity itself (being controlled), and how much is related to the possible utility of the process for helping improve educational practice?

How can we approach the issue of system improvement--including cost/effect analysis--in an acceptable manner and with reasonable and meaningful objectives without losing our sense of freedom and our heritage of self-assessment?

What kinds of internal or intrinsic controls do we now use or could we now use to relate to the extrinsic controls suggested by accreditation and legislative interests about educational accountability?

What kinds of things are we now measuring and reporting that relate to system process, status, and/or product? Can they be upgraded, used more deliberately, used more directly?

What implications would the adoption of an accountability model have for administrative assessment, student personnel assessment, and not just instructional assessment?

How can accountability be placed on the classroom teacher without his involvement, discussion, and negotiation and without similar accountabilities being placed on everyone in the

organizational chain of command above and around him?

Answers to these kinds of questions require us to think more deeply about the concept and its application to education. We have really only begun to think about it.

In public administration and in business management it is stated that no one can be held accountable for a performance to which he didn't agree or for which he didn't feel he had the authority to command the resources needed to meet his responsibilities. The concept of negotiation of objectives is common in both fields and precedes holding anyone accountable.

Also, in both fields accountability is considered a personal rather than a group matter. Groups, it is contended, cannot be held responsible since they have no specific individual accountability. This tradition should make educators uneasy, because they, as a group, are being asked to be accountable as a collective on vague terms for ill defined ends and to vaguely referenced outsiders.

If accountability is a personal matter, then to whom is the teacher accountable? The student? Other teachers? The faculty senate? The department chairman? The president? The local board? Some combination thereof? If a combination, then the principle of unity of accountability--accountable to only one person for clearly defined responsibilities--is violated. Should it be? Can we have multiple accountabilities--each of which is clearly defined? Should the concept of accountability in instruction include accountabilities to the students, to the other faculty, to our professional associations, to the

department chairmen, to the legislature, etc.? Or should the line or chain of command of the accountability structure of business apply through the organization, with a supervisor-supervisee relationship growing more and more typical? Is the growing role of the union in teacher organizations likely to force a line command structure within the collegial organization? To what extent does the union-management struggle ensnare the concept of departmental leadership on either matters of hygiene (courses, hours, graduate assistant assignment, increases); on matters of supervision (censure, evaluation, dismissal, salary cuts, or restr cted increases); or on matters intrinsic to the task itself (form and character of relationships with students, course content and format, procedures for assuring learning, grading procedures and practices, etc.)? At what point and in what ways is the classroom teacher an entrepreneur (in business for himself), and in what ways is he an employee of the firm?

If the administrative structure of the institution has no power or limited power over the faculty, and if the responsibility of the several and various parties for the "education" of the learner is neither detailed nor assessable, under what conditions and set of values is it appropriate to "nail" the classroom teacher for limited learning or learning below some "desirable" standard? Who is to provide the accounting for schools that do not teach, for children who do not learn? The classroom teacher? The counselors? The principal, president, superintendent? The local board?

The local board and the legislature, for decades, granted funds for the operation of the system, but have not concerned themselves with the problems of planning, input, effector, system operation, output, measurement, collator, standards, or feedback activities? Should the legislature establish the chain of accountabilities in view of its fundamental and unchanging accountability to the electorate?

There are many people, inside and outside the educational institution, who feel a vague but powerful insistence that our educational process should be improved. Unfortunately, perhaps, common sense suggests that too many high school graduates cannot pass the military induction examination; too many high school graduates are found to be reading at the third-grade level; too many students who enter college are eliminated before they graduate; and costs of schools and schooling continue to rise disproportionately to budget allocations in other fields.

Educators, on the other hand, have believed that a "good education" costs more; that the broad goals (and they are virtuous goals) of education are best achieved in newer facilities, in smaller groups, and by teachers with more advanced degrees and graduate study.

At this point in history, these conflicting convictions are fouled in a log jam created by a massive data deficiency. The publics not in the system want to know what they're getting for their money and those in the system want to know why they're not getting more money. As readily as one side can claim inadequacy

of performance, the other can claim professional achievements unlike any other nation in the world. Unfortunately for us all, there is not much data available that explains how well we do much of anything.

Enter accountability, a control concept--in public administration, in business management, in systems analysis. Is it a rubric for a challenge to define and clarify who is going to control the educational process, for what ends, and within what financial and social constraints? Is the emergence of accountability a specter of social pressure that the schools be responsive to and accountable to the supporting public rather than assorted amalgamations of professional societies, interest groups, and accrediting bodies?

Is there sufficient value in the concept of accountability to expect the institution of education and those within it to improve their effectiveness in using resources and processes to produce students with capabilities appropriate to today's and tomorrow's world?

INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH--THE ACADEMIC DEAN'S MOST CRUCIAL TOOL IN IMPLEMENTING ACCOUNTABILITY

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The purpose of this paper is to tie together two ill-defined functional officers of the community college in such a way that the first, the institutional research officer, can serve as a valuable tool to the second, the academic dean. The paper is based upon the assumption that the primary purpose of a community college is to provide high-quality instruction and that all administrative offices should be structured in a way that facilitates this instruction.

The title of academic dean (and all of its synonyms) falls to individuals with a variety of levels of responsibility. These may be classified in three general ways:

1. "The President-Dean." The "President-Dean" is a fast-growing species. In an increasing number of circumstances, the college president finds himself to be externally-directed. His responsibilities move increasingly towards satisfying the needs of community leaders, state government officials, and unfortunately, and even more frequently, the courts. Due to this external orientation of the president, the academic dean finds himself assuming many of the responsibilities earlier thought to fall in the president's office. In effect, colleges are moving towards a dual system with an internal and external president.

2. "The Academic Dean-Academic Dean." The Academic Dean-Academic Dean" is a role probably filled by most of us at this conference. Our authority is usually limited to recommending, but our recommendations are a major force in setting the direction of the institution, especially within the instructional program.

3. "The Tape Recorder-Academic Dean." This sub-species is largely a figurehead. Depending upon which side of the fence he finds himself, he acts as the recorder and subsequent transmitter of information from the president to the faculty or from the faculty to the president. Many more deans fall in this position than would like to admit it. This is a difficult sub-species to identify in that, generally, only the president and he are aware that he has slipped into this sub-species through the aging and tiring process.

Assuming that most of us here fall into the first two categories of academic deans, our role is one of being a decision maker. In our role as decision makers, we have four ways of approaching a decision:

1. Authority. We can make decisions because some faculty (they are becoming rarer) are impressed by the fact that we are a dean and our decisions can be based, in some instances, on the simple rationale that, "It's that way because I say its that way, and I'm the dean."

2. Committee Decisions. This form of decision making is

hardly different from the use of authority. Rather than using your own biases and opinions, you use the biases, opinions, and shared ignorance of a group of individuals. This form of decision making does have one value. It is harder to hold accountable any one individual for the consequences of the decision made.

3. The Use of Experts. This type of decision making generally is used most effectively by the professional plagiarist: the university professor. The university professor in this role uses footnotes and quotes the words of "experts" to back up statements of decisions that could not be put across without their assistance. It has, however, been used very cleverly by certain academic deans. The technique involves a search of the literature or the hiring of a consultant so that this supposed "expert" can shed the "guiding light" on the decision at hand.

4. The Use of Institutional Research. This form of decision making is used by each of us far more frequently than we realize and far less frequently than would be desired. Stated in over simplistic terms, it is decision making based on empirical data related to the problem at hand. Unfortunately, the quantity and quality of this data is seldom as great as we would wish.

I think most of us would agree that type 4 decision making generally leads to better decisions and would prefer to use this type far more frequently than we are able. As

a result of the problems of quality and quantity of data, we are generally forced to modify the use of this form of decision making so that it becomes indistinguishable from types 1, 2 and 3.

An effective institutional research office can serve as an invaluable tool in implementing type 4 decisions.

Institutional research has been defined by Brumbaugh[1] as that "designed to improve institutions of higher learning," by Rouche[2] as "all studies done within the college," by Marsee[3] as "self study by a college designed to improve the institution," and by Stickler[4] as that "which is directed toward providing data useful or necessary in the making of intelligent decisions and/or for the successful maintenance, operation, and/or improvement of a given institution." Roueche and Boggs[5] consider

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[1]Brumbaugh, A.J. Research Designed to Improve Institutions of Higher Learning. American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1960.

[2]Roueche, John E. "Superior Teaching in Junior Colleges: Research Needed," Improving College and University Teaching, Winter, 1968.

[3]Marsee, Stuart E. "A President's View of Institutional Research," Junior College Journal, May, 1965.

[4]Stickler, W. Hugh "Some Suggestions Concerning Institutional Research," in Willis A. LaVire, Institutional Research Bases for Administrative Decision-Making. Southeast Regional Junior College Administration Leadership Program, University of Florida, Gainesville, August 8-11, 1965 (ERIC ED 013 101).

[5]Roueche, John E. and John R. Boggs Junior College Institutional Research: The State of the Art. American Association of Junior Colleges, Washington, D.C. 1968.

institutional research as being "those systematic and fact-finding activities within a collegiate institution focused upon current problems and issues with institutional improvement as the associated outcome."

These definitions all sound exciting, meaningful, and full of hope, but I question whether they are realistic. Mathies[6], Roueche[7], and Thompson[8] have each supported the conclusion that institutional research consists largely of identifying the identified. Most studies turn out to be descriptive rather than evaluative, and are lacking in depth, balance, organization, and analysis.

It would seem that such institutional research breaks down into six basic types. I have taken the liberty of paraphrasing a model described in a current research proposal by Paul A. Elsner, Vice Chancellor of the Peralta Colleges in Oakland, California in describing these types of institutional research application:

1. Institutional Research Relating to the Allocation of Resources. This type of research is designed to provide data for analysis to assist you, the academic dean, in your "manager of resources" role. I define resources in this context as the facilities, funds, faculty, students, the administrative staff, of the

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[6]Mathies, Lorraine "Junior College Educators Indicate Information They Need," Junior College Journal, November, 1967.

[7]Roueche, John E. "Gaps and Overlaps in Institutional Research," Junior College Journal, November, 1967.

[8]Thompson, Jack "Institutional Studies of Junior College Students," Junior College Journal, May, 1967 (ERIC ED 013 070).

college. A few examples of ways in which institutional research of this type can contribute to your resource allocation decisions may be helpful.

Budget Analyses--Decisions required in this area include percentages of total budget in past, present, and future years by division, department, course, program, etc. The academic dean desperately needs data on the institutional cost per FTE as well as by each functional division of the instructional program. I don't think we will ever reach the point of having sufficient data and analysis in this area. The institutional research office can be of great assistance as we attempt to provide answers to problems of cost effectiveness analyses, allocation of resources for specific functions in the institution, unit cost analyses relating to plant operation and maintenance, as well as comparative cost studies for the various curricula and programs.

Negotiations--Whether negotiations at your college are across the bargaining table as they are in Michigan, or fall within the board's internal workings, much information is still required. Certainly studies of the average cost by subject, department, division, and faculty salaries with or without overloads are necessary. Faculty load information by faculty member, subject, department/division, student/faculty ratio, credit hours, contact hours, etc., are also essential. There are so many decisions related to negotiations that require hard data (our contract at Muskegon Community College is 53 pages long) that it would be less than

fruitful to list them all here. Suffice it to say that for each decision on faculty status, load, and working conditions, data must be at hand if the board is going to make its decisions judiciously.

Class Size--These studies may include such data as weighted averages by course, subject, instructor, department/division, by term, day, and evening. They are probably the most crucial data in terms of the allocation of resources within the instructional area. A large community college can save hundreds of thousands of dollars by increasing class size by three to five students. The effects on smaller institutions are proportional. Other types of studies that would fall into the allocation of resources category include the number of courses by subject, by faculty member, by full-time student; the number of faculty; the ratio of faculty to administration; part-time faculty studies; faculty turn-over studies, etc.

The care and feeding of our resources (the professional staff) should not be ignored. Studies of the professional growth activities of faculty serve as one example in this area.

2. Institutional Research that Assesses Student Potential. I frequently run into conflicts when certain members of our community use the factory analogy for the community college. Yet, there is something to say for the fact that we are in a position

of taking raw materials, training it with courses, polishing it with counseling, and certifying it with a degree. The raw materials, our students and potential students, must be a known factor if we are to make programmatic decisions that will result in the type of product desired. Certainly any assessment of effectiveness must use as a baseline the student's potential. This is especially true when we wish to compare potential to the student's achievement when he finishes given programs. Data, which can best be supplied through the institutional research office, are necessary for arriving at the type of program determinants that are the essentials for program planning. A very basic data need is for a profile of individual-student and student-body characteristics so that faculty have information for effective decisions concerning the curriculum and their teaching methodologies. Such profiles are also essential in our role in formulating institutional goals and objectives. Probably the greatest single data gap for most of us regarding students is data on those students who aren't ours yet--the community we attempt to serve.

3. Institutional Research that Assesses Achievement. Like it or not, evaluation of our faculty, programs, student achievement, etc., is our bag. The types of data required for evaluation include:

A. Such incoming student characteristics as age, sex, attitudes, health, motivation, verbal and nonverbal

competencies, interests, etc.

B. The relative "effectiveness" of alternative instructional strategies.

C. Studies based on criteria that grow out of individual goals, departmental goals, and institutional goals as we attempt to assess individual achievement, departmental achievement and institutional achievement. The range of information that would be helpful in this regard is overwhelming yet most of us would be happy if we could just get effective follow-up studies; on the job for occupational students; and at other institutions for transfer students.

D. Studies of the institutional climate which generally are not available at this time, can assist us as academic deans in one of our most vaguely defined, yet most important responsibilities. We (meaning me) often find ourselves as that person responsible for creating a climate in which instruction is exciting, students are striving to learn, and yes, in which even faculty are willing to work. It is probably apparent from the tone of these comments that I have not been as successful in this regard as I would like. This fact only highlights the point I am trying to make. I have, at this time, virtually no data which would allow me to make better decisions as I strive to improve an institutional climate destroyed regularly at the negotiating table.

4. Institutional Research that Assists in Decisions on Curriculum and Program Needs and Priorities. The most difficult data to get a hold of is that which relates to projections of career trends and manpower needs. These form the basis of our occupational programs and are required daily. When we realize the amount of institutional resources one must commit in developing a new occupational program, the need for such data becomes paramount. Unfortunately, even the best data currently available often is fragmentary and its quality suspect. Somewhere on the vast horizon underneath that brightly colored rainbow lies the academic dean's pot of gold. To me that pot of gold is sufficient data on anticipated industrial needs that can be coordinated with clearly defined student needs and motivations as well as research-based curriculum designed to provide students with skills arrived at through careful task analyses using instructional methodologies that have empirically been shown to provide the greatest growth in student achievement at the lowest possible cost.

5. Institutional Research that Assesses the College's Impact on the Community. No matter how erudite our statements of institutional goals and philosophies, no matter how clearly stated our behavioral objectives, we are all trying to do the same thing--make a positive impact on our communities in terms of cultural, social, economic, and educational growth. Unfortunately, I cannot even describe the types of studies that would be most useful in assessing this impact, let alone provide

a prescription for its accomplishment.

Perhaps even more unfortunate is our only single gross measure of such impact--the mileage election. Even though such elections provide us with every accurate feedback (in a gross sense) on the college's impact, they provide us with no information which would positively effect that impact. How often do we ask ourselves the question, "Why don't those people (in the community) understand what the college is doing for them?" The answer is all too simple. We can't tell them. We have little or no data which would indicate that we are doing much. Unfortunately, taxpayers aren't satisfied with our gut-level feelings of being worthwhile.

6. General Research Services. At Muskegon Community College, I have said that the faculty's primary role is to facilitate student learning. I can paraphrase that for the academic dean. His primary role is to facilitate teacher teaching. If assumptions regarding decision making stated earlier are valid, and I believe they are, and if the teacher at the classroom level is primarily a decision maker in facilitating student learning, as I believe he is, then one of our major contributions to facilitating teaching must be the provision of research services to our faculty. These services should include evaluative research on teaching methodologies, and they should provide institutional research-type data for faculty decision making as well as training and consultative services for the faculty.

In order to accomplish the tasks outlined above, the institutional research office must have clearly stated objectives.

The following objective statements, while stated in idealistic terms, may be useful to you in establishing objectives for your own institutional research office:

1. The institutional research office should provide a comprehensive data base including files on students, faculty, the physical plant, teaching resources, finances, and the community for all analyses required by the decision makers in the institution.

   It is the lack of such comprehensive data bases that serves as a barrier in every decision application. Compiling and providing such data constitutes a major role for institutional research.

2. The institutional research office must be designed to meet the needs of the users.

   The development of most institutional research offices seems to be based upon the theories of systems analysts rather than upon the needs of people who will have to work with the system. The institutional research office must place continuing emphasis on the key role of the user. A necessary implication of this is that the user will need assistance in effectively utilizing the data and analysis provided.

3. There should be developed a central institutional research office which will serve as a center for data gathering, processing, analysis and reporting.

   As the decisions required of faculty and administrators have increased in number, so have the places

these decision makers must go to seek data. Even where these individuals could potentially share information, the data is often impossible to retrieve in a format which is usable for a specific application. Centralization of collection, analysis, and reporting of information would help to alleviate this problem.

4. A system of two-way feedback between the users and the institutional research office must be established.

Probably the most effective vehicle for such feedback is the institutional research advisory committee. Too often have I experienced the situation in which deans do their deaning and researchers do their research and never the twain shall meet. Only through structured communication channels will the institutional research office come anywhere near providing the service that is so necessary.

5. The institutional research office should coordinate information analysis on all components in the institution. It should not limit itself to data and report generation but be a recommending agency as well.

While I realize this objective is controversial, and that some institutional research offices have tended to run the institution where it has been implemented, the institutional research office is in a unique position of being able to coordinate data on all facets of the institution. They thus may have a broader view of given situations than any single functional office could ever have.

With these objectives in mind, it is possible to outline the steps necessary to design and implement an effective institutional research office. Once again, the statement is idealistic, but the underlying principles should prove useful.

1. A comprehensive systems analysis of information needs.

   This should include an analysis of information gathering and reporting in the current system as well as analysis of the information gathering and reporting needs not now being met.

2. The development of data-element dictionaries, of faculty and supporting staff information, student information, physical facilities information, financial information, learning resources information, and community information.

   These dictionaries should provide the framework for three types of data files. The first priority files should contain information needed on a regular basis by several components of the college community. The second priority files should contain information used from time to time and generally is limited to information not required more than two or three times a year. The third priority files include whatever other information for which a potential need is seen at some point in the future. It will be necessary to define precisely each data

element which will be a component of the file. Many of these items already have useful and widely accepted definitions, but others require careful study to eliminate ambiguity in their use. Definitions should be uniform to insure against erroneous comparisons. Where exceptions are made to a given definition, each instance should be identified and documented. Whenever an item in the system has been defined, a logical coding system must be developed to allow for efficient data processing, analysis, and report preparation.

3. The development of standard codes, definitions, reports, and analyses.

Reporting requirements are a function of the user's need. It will, therefore, be necessary in the analysis of the current reporting system to make an indepth study of the information needs of individuals at the various decision-making levels. This analysis should include a study of the dynamics of the information gathering, the flow of data, individual responsibilities for decision making and the uses made of the information gathered for all reports within the current system.

4. Interpretation of the information report requirements into specific report layout that best meet the users' needs.

   Important consideration will include the formatting of data, descriptions of data and levels of summarization. The effectiveness of the institutional research office is a direct function of the usability of its output. Report formats thus become a top priority consideration for the office.

5. Budgeting and staffing of the institutional research office based on the analysis of need.

   Research-based decision making does not come cheaply. Once again the factory analogy becomes useful in a direct way. Those firms which have reinvested a large percentage of their profits into research and development have consistently been more effective than those which have not. An annual expenditure of five percent of the institution's budget for institutional research may be as unrealistic at my institution as at yours, but it would not be unreasonable if that office were to be utilized fully. The attainment of the objectives outlined earlier in this paper will be nothing more than a pipe dream, however, unless a real financial commitment is made to institutional research. On the other hand, even an investment of twenty-five percent of the institution's budget in institutional

research would be meaningless unless the decision style was modified toward research-based decisions.

Summing up, we paraphrase that greatest of all authors, Anon, "Research without implementation may be futile, but decision making without sufficient data could be fatal."

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PRE-SERVICE AND IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF COMMUNITY COLLEGE FACULTY MEMBERS

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The People Who Staff the People's College is the provocative title of a January 1972 report submitted to the National Advisory Council for Educational Professions Development by Dr. Terry O'Banion. In the preface to the report, he states (26,i):

> The quality of education in the community-junior college depends primarily on the quality of the staff. Community-junior colleges can enroll increasing numbers of students; they can house these students and programs in attractive, modern facilities; but all those will avail little if their staffs are not highly competent and well prepared for the unique tasks assigned them by this new venture in American education.

He goes on to point out that it is time for the priorities of community-junior colleges to shift from concern with quantitative matters such as number of students, buildings, and colleges, to a concern for the quality of the staff who serve in these institutions.

Without a great deal of difficulty, it would be possible to cite at least twenty or thirty authorities on the need for faculty development, some dating back as far as 1925. However, attempting to justify the need for faculty development would be an insult to the readers of this paper. (For those interested in other quotations regarding the need for faculty training, Mike Schafer did an excellent job of citing these

in his monograph, The Student Role of Teachers: Faculty Development in the Community College [32, 1-2].)

Before proceeding, it might be useful if I were to define four terms which will be used throughout the paper. They are:

Pre-service - Any program of faculty training conducted between the time an employment contract is signed and the new teacher begins full-time teaching.

Orientation - A short (normally one-to three-day) period of activities, normally conducted immediately prior to the first day of classes, which are designed to assist a new staff member in becoming familiar with the college and his role in it.

In-service - Those post-employment activities, sponsored by the college or pursued by a faculty member, which attempt to improve his functioning as a faculty member.

Faculty Development - Those pre-service, orientation, and in-service activities in which new and old faculty participate in order to improve their functioning as faculty members.

Assumptions Underlying This Paper

The assumptions which O'Banion cited in support of his case for increased programs to prepare and upgrade community college faculty are also quite appropriate for this paper. They are as follows (26, 167-168):

1. Community-junior colleges are special kinds of educational institutions, in some ways similar to, but in some ways vastly different from, secondary schools and four-year colleges and universities.

2. Community-junior college students are special kinds of students, similar to their counterparts in other educational institutions, but significantly different in a wide range of characteristics.

3. There is a great need for the great number of community college staff members who are especially qualified to serve these kinds of students in these kinds of institutions.

4. If the community-junior college is to grow in quality as it has in quantity; if the needs of minority groups are to be met; if the undereducated are to have a second chance; if the needs of business, industry, and government are to be provided for; if communities are to be given opportunities for renewal and rehabilitation; if all human beings are to be given opportunities to explore, extend, and experience their hopes and dreams, then it is imperative that immediate and considerable attention be given to the educational needs of those who staff 'democracy's college'. For if the staff fails, the college fails. And if this college fails, this democracy will be obliged, out of great travail, to generate other institutions to accomplish the proper work of the community-junior college.

5. While there are some promising programs currently available in universities and community-junior colleges, programs for pre-service and in-service education are mostly nonexistent or inappropriate where they do exist.

6. Imaginative and potent educational programs for community-junior college staff, supported by the federal government, state and local governments, four-year colleges and universities, community-junior colleges, private foundations, and other appropriate agencies, must be continued where they exist, and organized and developed where they do not, if the community college concept is to survive at all, much less grow and mature in its contributions to American society.

To these, I would add only two, namely:

7. Most community college faculty members are willing to improve their teaching.

8. A successful faculty development program can be conducted at any community college, despite limited staff or financial resources.

Recruitment and Selection

While I'm sure any Dean of Instruction reading this would agree that it is possible to in some way improve the performance of virtually anyone he might employ, I'm equally sure that you would all agree that there are some individuals with whom it is easier to work, and who are most receptive to change. In other words, the best faculty development program is no substitute for well planned recruiting procedures in which the needs of the institution are carefully defined and persons recruited and selected to fill those needs.

However, it is not the purpose of this paper to deal with recruitment and selection. For those interested in additional reading, I strongly recommend a publication available from the Institute of Higher Education at the University of Florida entitled, Guidelines for the Recruitment and Selection of Community College Faculty (28). Written by a Dean of Academic Affairs, it is a succinct and enlightening document.

Suggestions for Deriving the Content of a Faculty Development Program

Before discussing some suggestions from the literature regarding what should be the content of a faculty development program, it might be well to spend some time thinking about how one goes about determining the content. Offhand, I can think of five possible methods:

1. Ask the faculty what their needs are.
2. Use a planning team comprised of people who have been around awhile.

3. Specify the knowledge, skills, and abilities you desire in a faculty member and design a program to develop these.

4. Review the literature and base your program on what seems to be a consensus.

5. Leave it up to the division or department.

One of these, or some combination of them should suffice as the device by which the content for a faculty development program is determined. Each method has its advantages and disadvantages, and as is true with any procedure, the method of implementation is crucial. For example, it is one thing to circulate a memo to the faculty and ask them to indicate what they would like to see included in a faculty development program. It is another to list several items, leave space for them to add others, and then ask them to rank these in order of their need.

The advantage in surveying faculty is an obvious one; a program designed around the needs of participants is much more likely to succeed. The disadvantage in this method lies in the possible differences between evidenced faculty needs and institutional goals. Also, faculty tend to be rather parochial in their views.

The use of a faculty planning team has the obvious advantage of faculty participation and, if there is administrative representation on the committee, faculty-administration communication is facilitated, thus avoiding the possible discrepancy between faculty and administration perception which some authors have noted (16). Also, if the planning team consists of people who have been at the institution for sometime, and know the

institution, you can normally assume the topics selected will be relevant. The disadvantage of a planning committee is the disadvantage of any committee--increased time requirement.

Using a behavioral design whereby content is designed to provide each participant with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes which someone in the institution has specified, appears a logical way of insuring that time and resources are maximally utilized. However, few institutions are sufficiently clear regarding the behavior they wish their faculty to evidence and fewer still would be competent at designing a program to facilitate this. Another possible difficulty with this method of determining content is the lack of faculty involvement, leading to the question of indoctrination versus development.

A review of the literature will yield many useful items, and an enterprising researcher could no doubt arrange these in some sort of frequency distribution which could be referred to in selecting topics. However, while this method might be useful in producing a shopping list, there is no assurance that faculty development programs based on it would prepare faculty to function effectively in any particular college.

The last method mentioned for determining content was that of delegating this to the department/division level. Although diversity may result from this route, provincialism, dualism, needless duplication of effort, and inadequacy are more likely results. This is the method normally used in senior colleges and universities and may explain why students experience so many frustrations in those institutions.

My own recommendation is a combination of all these with one significant addition--the educational development officer (EDO), a new staff member dreamed up by the folks at the National Laboratory for Higher Education. Ideally, he is a staff (not line) officer, responsible to the Dean of Instruction for such things as faculty pre-service, orientation, and in-service training, curricular and instructional development, and evaluation, etc. If your institution is fortunate enough to have such an individual, he is certainly the logical choice.

By appointment of an advisory committee to assist the EDO, faculty input will be assured in the creation of a survey instrument (based on the literature and on the needs of the institution) which can be used to inventory the needs of faculty. The EDO should be familiar enough with the institution and its needs to insure that the resultant program is relevant to both faculty and institutional needs. Further, he will be able to convert the data from the survey into measurable performance objectives, design programs to achieve these objectives, evaluate the results, and make changes based on feedback. He should also insure that there is sufficient division/department involvement to meet their unique needs, while insuring that all participants receive certain common elements also.

Suggested Content for a Faculty Development Program

In reviewing the literature, I was surprised at the amount of writing about what might be included in a faculty development program. In fact, there was so much that I had difficulty organizing it. Finally, to facilitate its use by you, I decided to group what I found according to four time categories.

The first category deals with what might be done between the time a faculty member signs a contract and the time he reports for orientation or other faculty pre-service activities.

The second category deals with faculty orientation, or the normal one-to three-day program immediately preceding the beginning of classes.

The third category describes what might occur if an institution chose to offer a two-to three-week pre-service faculty training program for new faculty in the period immediately preceding the beginning of classes.

The final category describes some suggestions for in-service activities which would be offered to both old and new faculty during the school year.

Assisting a new faculty member in adjusting to a new situation shouldn't wait until he arrives for the first day of faculty orientation, or pre-service training. For example, when a new faculty member accepts a position with Burlington, he is immediately sent a package containing a map of the county, a state park and recreation guide, faculty handbook, county municipal tax rates, school information, faculty directory, catalog, faculty association collective bargaining contract, and information regarding housing. Since housing is not plentiful in our service area, we place ads for rentals in local papers. In addition, tentative course assignments are made and copies of texts, course syllabi, learning packages, etc., are sent. The library contacts him for book and periodical requests. The personnel office furnishes information about such necessary details as pay dates, withholdings, and

beginning dates of health insurance. Feedback from faculty indicates that these courtesies have been appreciated and serve to convey an attitude which says, "We care about you."

Orientation programs are described in some detail in the literature. Some of the ideas gleaned from it are: get-acquainted social activities (board, administration, old and new faculty), tours of the community, meetings with students, discussions about the faculty's role in governance and the existing committee structure, a question-and-answer session on the faculty handbook, seminars on business and personnel policies affecting faculty, a presentation on institutional goals and objectives and the faculty's role in accomplishing these, institutional problems, outstanding features of the institution, student data, introduction to the student personnel services staff, explanation of the faculty advising role, review of regularly used forms and procedures, assistance available in preparing and using instructional materials, grading practices, etc.

Unfortunately, only one article could be found describing institutional attempts to conduct a two/three week program of pre-service training for new faculty (10),probably because few colleges have attempted this. Consequently, the discussion which follows is based solely on the experience of the author in planning, conducting, and evaluating three such programs at his institution.

First of all, I believe that a two-or three-week pre-service

program for all new faculty is much to be preferred over a two-three day orientation program. Due to time limitations, the latter becomes a "talk" session while the former can be structured as a "work" shop in which new faculty are actually involved in "doing" things. The cost is minimal. At Burlington, we have developed and validated a two-week program which is required for all new faculty. Payment is on the same basis as for overload teaching, which averages out to $225.00 per week. This $450.00 per faculty member is perhaps the best spent money at the college. During this time a faculty member:

1. Learns how to write measurable learning objectives and matching criterion test items.
2. Writes a self-instructional learning package.
3. Develops a course syllabus.
4. Becomes familiar with procedures for fully utilizing the considerable talents of a rather extensive learning resources staff.
5. Is checked out on the use of those audiovisual aids and control devices used in the various instructional areas.
6. Is given actual experience in the use of small group techniques.
7. Becomes conversant regarding the history and philosophy of community colleges in general and ours in particular.
8. Becomes familiar with the goals and objectives of community colleges in general and ours in particular.
9. Becomes familiar with the nature of community college students as compared to four-year college students and is briefed on known data about the students in our college.
10. Meets other faculty in his division and, working with his division chairman, becomes familiar with divisional policies and procedures.

11. Through a question and answer period, becomes quite familiar with college policies and procedures (an extensive faculty handbook is the vehicle used for this).

12. Becomes familiar with college facilities and the community at large.

13. Is acquainted with members of the student personnel staff and their functions.

14. Is acquainted with many of the unique features and instructional innovations of the college.

At the end of this two-week period, he has one week before classes begin. This one week off (at no pay) was initiated this past year, based on feedback from the preceding year. By the time classes begin, he is well on his way toward becoming a full contributing member of the faculty.

Faculty evaluations have been overwhelmingly positive toward this practice and we plan to continue it. If you are considering moving in this direction, I would offer a few suggestions:

1. Plan get-acquainted activities very carefully. We used consultants from the National Training Laboratories one year, then our own staff the next. Getting everyone to know one another the first day is critical.

2. Conduct the workshop as you want faculty to conduct their classes. Our institution is heavily systems oriented, and many classes are completely individualized. This is the model we have tried to emulate in our pre-service program.

3. Involve returning faculty members. We make it optional for them to participate and find that they drop in and out.

4. Involve at least a few students. It is amazing how positively both students and faculty react to this.

5. As a general rule, avoid the use of consultants who come in, make a speech, and leave.

6. Avoid those things which are traditionally done in orientation programs, such as long welcome speeches by the president or board chairman. Instead, have them become active participants in some section of the program.

7. Establish a timetable and stick to it unless valid feedback indicates otherwise.

8. Provide plenty of free time when faculty can attend to personal matters, and work on getting ready for the beginning of classes.

9. Insure that the faculty realize the importance attached to the workshop by spending the maximum time in the workshop. Insure your department/division chairmen do likewise. A good rule to follow is: no observers--only participants.

10. Insure that any staff member involved in the workshop is thoroughly prepared and well organized. I still remember a director of personnel (no longer with us) who occupied an entire morning getting necessary payroll forms completed when twenty minutes would have sufficed.

11. Create an open atmosphere at the very beginning and encourage constant feedback.

12. Don't expect <u>too little</u> from the two weeks. I have constantly had to withstand well meaning efforts to reduce the amount of material covered when evaluations from participants indicated otherwise.

13. Assign responsibility for planning, implementing, and evaluating the workshop to one person and give him the necessary authority.

14. Be prepared to say "no" to requests for "time to speak to the new faculty." You wouldn't believe the people who want thirty minutes with them.

I would go on, but this should give you an idea of what can be done. I urge you to plan for this in your next year's budget. You won't be sorry!

The final category of faculty development deals with in-service activities. In general, almost every community college

does something which might qualify as in-service training. However, few have developed a planned in-service program. The following listing of possible components in an in-service program is taken in large part from the work by O'Banion cited earlier (26, 195-201).

1. Institutes - Usually four to eight weeks long and normally held in the summer, they are quite popular with faculty, especially when graduate credit is given. Participants often learn a great deal from each other because different colleges from different states are represented.

2. Short-Term Workshops - in contrast to institutes, workshops usually focus on a more specific topic and are of shorter duration. These are most appropriate for introducing new ideas or for implementing new approaches and devices. In the past, they have been very helpful in keeping staff up to date regarding innovations and new developments in community college education.

3. Staff Retreats - In recent years this technique has gained popularity. It normally involves getting away from campus for a few days to concentrate on a small number of topics. They are sometimes restricted to a small group, other times collegewide, including board members.

4. On-Campus Continuing Seminars - Some colleges offer in-house on-campus seminars or courses to help develop special staff understanding or skills. At Burlington County College, staff members can enroll in special in-service courses that are designed to develop instructional materials and methods. Staff who successfully complete a program of this type receive credit which counts toward promotion.

5. Extension Courses - Some colleges which are conveniently located near a graduate school sponsor on-campus graduate courses. Most often, these are courses such as community college history and philosophy, community college curriculum and instruction, etc.

6. Conventions and Professional Meetings - Although generally not as effective as longer term, more focused in-service programs, conventions and professional meetings are important parts of any well designed in-service program. From personal experience, perhaps

the greatest advantage is the chance to get away from campus for a day or so, meet new people, compare notes, and gain a new perspective.

7. Visitations - Visits to other colleges to observe and review educational programs are often quite effective in stimulating programs and staff development. A hidden value is that staff often find how green the grass is at home.

8. Use of Packaged Programs - One means for conducting an in-house seminar is to use a packaged program. For example, there are two very good slide-tape series on improving instruction, one entitled Vimcet (37) and the other PPIT (27). Often, a college can, over a period of years generate its own series, by recording consultants' presentations and "canning" presentations.

9. Professional Library - A time-honored, but often overlooked approach to in-service, is through professional reading. In the past few years, the amount and equality of literature on the community college and improved teaching techniques has increased enormously. Place on a single open shelf in the library some of the significant books about higher education and call faculty attention to them. Many faculty members will be surprised to learn that there are some.

10. Faculty Exchange Programs - One potentially important means for staff development is an exchange program. However, because of administrative inability to resolve problems about housing, travel allowances, etc., it has not been used to any extent.

These are some of the major in-service approaches to faculty development. I'm sure that many of you have other ideas and hope that you will feelfree to share them with the group.

Problems

There are a number of minor problems and a few major ones which can effectively kill a program of faculty development.

The first, and perhaps the most serious problem is the lack of reinforcement for faculty participation in faculty development. Salary increases tied to graduate credits rather

than improving one's abilities as a teacher insure that faculty give priority to the former.

Another problem is the belief on the part of many faculty that college teaching is an art that cannot be taught. This belief is becoming less difficult to dispel as more and more new teachers realize that graduate school may have prepared them in what to teach, but not how.

Recently, in some states, clauses have been written into collective bargaining contracts which severely limit the number of meetings which faculty can be expected to attend. Where this has happened, the glare of publicity may be necessary to cause union leaders to adopt a more reasonable position at the bargaining table.

The inability of institutions to conduct and evaluate effective faculty development programs is another problem. Often, the most competent person for this job, the Dean of Instruction, is unable to find time for the task. If there is no Educational Development Officer, or Assistant Dean who can do the job, it just doesn't get done. Considering the importance of this matter, it might be time for Deans of Instruction to reexamine their priorities.

Lack of time on the part of faculty is perhaps the most common complaint. I suspect it would disappear if: (1) the faculty perceived faculty development activities to be important in the eyes of the administration, (2) the programs were worthwhile, and (3) participation was tied to the reward system.

The last problem, and probably the most important one, is the general belief among administrators that the above roadblocks are too great to overcome, or that the results which might follow are not important enough to warrant developing a program to overcome the roadblocks. Part of the solution lies in greater recognition on the part of administration of the need for, and value of, faculty development programs. One possible source of the problem is that administrators generally do not realize how helpful certain practices can be until they try them (217).

Evaluation Program

If time and money are to be spent in faculty development programs, the results should be evaluated. Conducting programs is based on the assumption that the results will be desirable, and this assumption should be tested. However, determining results is not always easy, even when objectives have been specified in advance. It is quite possible that results may be due to factors other than the program.

Any evaluation should examine both affective and cognitive behavior change and to detect change, pre-tests and post-tests are necessary, thus creating the need for carefully designed instruments. In developing these, don't restrict items to easily scored objective-type questions. Open-ended questions like the following can be very revealing:

1. In what ways was the program helpful to you as you begin adjusting to your new role as a community college faculty member?

2. Please give your impressions on the role of a faculty member at _____College as compared to the role of faculty member in a four-year college.

3. Did you gain any useful information on the two-year college student?

4. How will this be of use to you in your teaching?

5. What was of most value to you?

Changes in grade distributions, lowered faculty turnover rates, student evaluations of faculty, innovative proposals submitted, these may all yield indications of change toward desired ends. However, faculty development, like teaching, is a purposeful activity. If the objectives are stated in advance, then it is possible to design programs to accomplish them.

Recommendations

Suggestions regarding faculty development have been scattered throughout this paper. What this section attempts to do is summarize some of the more important features.

The first of these is that measurable objectives be established for all faculty development activities. If you don't know where your're going, how will you know how to get there? And equally important, when you get there?

Award institutional credit toward salary increases, promotion, etc., for successful completion of faculty development activities. This, more than any one item, shows the emphasis the institution places on faculty development.

Involve faculty and students in the planning and implementation of faculty development activities wherever possible.

You're concerned with feelings and attitudes as much if not more than acquisition of facts. Consequently, opportunities

in both large and small groups should be provided for discussing and questioning information presented.

The program should be evaluated using both cognitive and affective measures.

In large part, avoid structuring faculty development on divisional or department basis.

Be sure prospective staff are informed in advance about the emphasis placed on faculty development activities and are aware that they will be expected to participate in them.

Make faculty development programs as intellectually stimulating as most graduate courses.

Tie successful completion of a planned program of faculty development to the reward system of the institution (merit, salary, promotion, released time, publicity, etc.). In fact, why not establish a list of proficiencies for each rank similar to those used at Passaic Community College in New Jersey? When a faculty member feels that he possesses these proficiencies, he can be tested, and if he passes, promoted. Related to this, what is there to prevent an institution from establishing measurable criteria for tenure?

Provide time for faculty development activities during regular school hours where possible.

Include funds for faculty development in the regular operating budget of the college.

Establish specific criteria for evaluation of individual involvement in faculty development activities.

Assign responsibility for faculty development programs and insure that adequate authority is similarly vested.

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IDEAS FOR IMPLEMENTING CHANGE: INSTRUCTIONAL DEVELOPMENTS IN THE TWO-YEAR COLLEGE

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Accommodation of diversity is rarely an actual function of any bureaucratic organization, be it business or educational. The observation of most specialists in organization theory is that colleges and universities are among the most poorly organized and managed American institutions.

Our present educational system functions effectively for a minority of students who enroll without academic deficiencies. For those with educational deficiencies or vastly different cultural backgrounds, the system is dysfunctional, with drop-out statistics running as high as 75% for these groups during their first year of study.

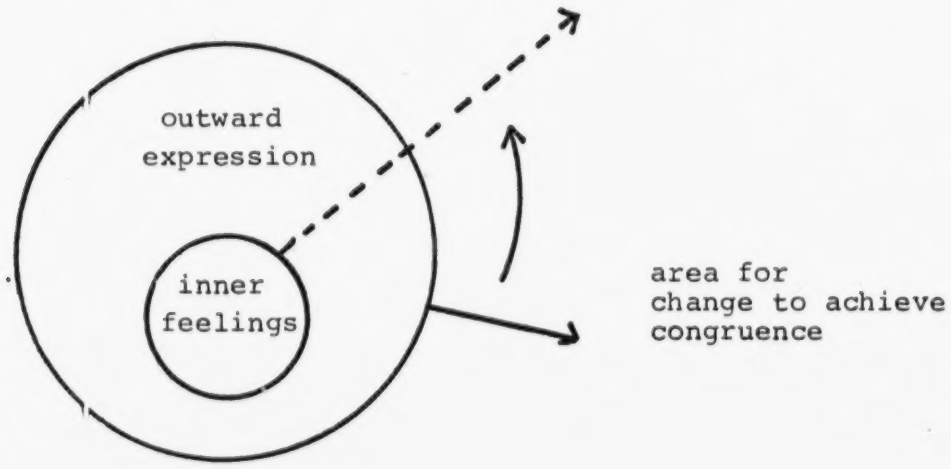
Our present educational system has been developed to function fairly efficiently. We have designed policies, manuals, procedures, services, and systems. However, after these have been devloped, there is often a strong tendency to lock into them. These problems are especially devastating in the open-door community colleges and technical institutes. Established practices tend to negate the current commitment to equality of educational opportunity and to accountability for students learning. With increasing frequency two-year institutions have cited as their dilemma that students are being admitted to and often recruited by them without the institution having

instructional programs and supporting administrative policies to accommodate the fundamental learning problems of these students. Many complex problems have emerged, at the center of which is the apparent need for significant modifications in traditional methods of instruction.

Many institutions are proposing to solve the problem of the wide range of student backgrounds and differential learning rates by implementing a systematic approach to the individualization of instruction which requires instructors to develop a series of instructional units. This direction has merit, but the switch from existing practices may well be dotted with instructor discontent and frustration, student disorientation, community and parental misunderstanding, and administrative confusion.

Another dimension of this situation is the feelings and attitudes that the community college movement professes to have in relation to students. It is often claimed that one of the unique elements of the community college is its concern with the individual student and his successful progress. Too often, however, in the same institution there exists a difference between the sometimes almost maudlin feelings of caring for each individual student and the practices and organization of the institution--the outward expression that students interpret as representing our feelings. Simply stated, the educational goal felt and valued is not being achieved by current instructional practice. Changing instructional practices and supporting

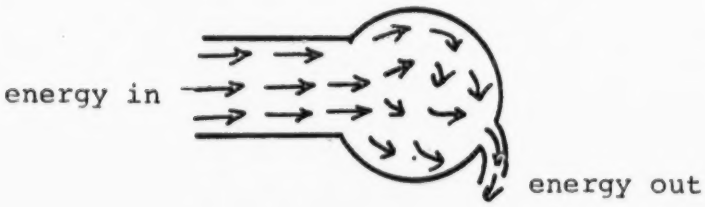
administrative policies can be viewed as an attempt at problem solving. In order to be congruent, care or concern for the student as an individual must be translated into an outward expression which is reflected in the design of our instructional programs and the specification of our administrative policies. Failure to do so makes the community college just one more unfulfilled educational promise.



Closing the gap between where an institution is and where it wants to be with respect to instruction demands two major efforts: (1) managing change and (2) organizing the human energy behind the goals and purposes of instruction. Fordyce and Weil (1971) illustrate the problem by contrasting energy flow in congruent and incongruent organizations.

> In a snapshot view, an ideal organization may resemble water gliding through a straight pipe; or it may look like rows of galley slaves stroking the sea hard and rhythmically; or like a man and his team ploughing a field. The collective energy--of the separate drops of water, of the men and their oars, of the farmer, his beasts, and his plough--flows in one direction.

If we snap the shutter on an unhealthy organization, we get a very different picture of energy flow:



> Here a tremendous amount of energy pours into the system at the one end, but the real output dribbles out a pipette. Most of the strength, talent, wisdom, force, liveliness, inventiveness, and joy of people is dissipated internally.[1]

The primary focus of this paper is upon planned change. The question of how to focus human energy on institutional goals is beyond the scope of this paper. But certainly part of this effort is connected with the employment of organizational strategies which allow for purposive involvement of all constituents in determining institutional goals. The primary function of alert leadership is to focus human energy on purpose--the good leader is the person who can organize the most energy and effort behind organizational purpose and goals. One useful technique is mutual goal determination. In this area George A. Baker has developed a useful strategy.[2]

In order to focus on some critical steps involved in the process of change, it is useful to raise four questions. What needs to change? Who needs to change? What are some of the reasons for resisting change? How do we plan for change?

What Needs to Change?

In effecting instructional change three areas of development will be explored: knowledge, skills, and attitudes. The

recognition and concern with development in each of these three areas has implications for the types of in-service and pre-service staff training programs which could be designed. In the first area, increasing knowledge concerning aspects of the proposed change, one dimension would merely be having the persons affected by the change become familiar with the terminology associated with the change. Terms such as "criterion test," nonpunitive grading," "instructional objectives," "redirection and recycling of students," need to be understood so that confusion and misunderstanding over their meaning does not interfere with the process of the change. The area of skill development builds on the knowledge base. After one knows what the components of instructional objectives are, how do you develop and sequence them? How do you write criterion test items? Construct relevant learning activities? Collect and use appropriate data to revise the instructional materials? Another facet of skill development is in the area of what could be termed management of self-paced instruction. How does one contend with students beginning and finishing a course at different times? With the changing role of the faculty member? Basic to the change to a more individualized or self-paced instructional program is often a significant attitudinal change--a change to believing that a high percentage of students in any class can learn if they are given enough time and the appropriate types of help, Benjamin Bloom's premise.[3]

Who Needs to Change?

This question will be examined with respect to the levels

of change mentioned above. Students have to change with respect to their attitudes, knowledge, and skills. To effect such a change, students' conception of what constitutes a "college education" needs to change. A "college education" does not necessarily mean listening to lectures and taking notes. Under individualized instruction it could mean learning in a variety of ways: audio tapes, slide sequences, field trips, small group discussions. Students, too, have to understand what the components of the instructional system are, such as objectives, and what their importance is in the changed instructional program. Students need to comprehend the relationships between the different components--such as the one that exists between the instructional objectives and the criterion tests. In the area of skill development students must accept that they are responsible for pacing and directing their own learning. They are responsible for managing their time, for developing their own schedule for completing course material--skills that need to be developed if learning throughout life is to be accomplished.

Library and media personnel also need to change with respect to their attitudes, skills, and knowledge. They have to be aware of the new materials--book and non-book--to work with the faculty member who is trying to create current and effective learning materials. They can help the institution manage self-paced instruction by implementing a "learning resources center" concept. A center which allows for a free flow of materials and

equipment to faculty and students and which makes space available to students where they can apply in independent study their own "learning how to learn" skills.

The faculty is the key group that needs to make changes in attitudes, skills, and knowledge. Like students, faculty members have to change their basic conception of "college" and what it means to "teach." Teaching does not have to be the instructor in front of the students, rather it can be the faculty member structuring situations where students can interact with the necessary materials and persons. Skills in managing individualized instruction for the faculty member are crucial--how does a faculty member structure his program so that students can be at different points in the course, so that students can enter or complete a course at various times during the year. Since there are more one-to-one situations with the faculty member and one student or a small group of students, the faculty member has to develop skills in better relating to students on a more informal basis--a position that is threatening to many faculty members.

Administrators, too, have to make changes in attitudes, skills, and knowledge in order to make the shift to individualized instruction effective. One area of change is the rethinking of faculty evaluation procedures. Another area is implementing institutional changes which would enhance the effectiveness of the program: changes in grading policies, realistic designation of faculty loads, removal of time constraints on learning.

Other groups such as board of trustees, counselors and recruiters, parents and community persons, and office and support staff need to be considered if the total change is to be effective. All need to understand the changing nature of the institution and, like faculty, students broaden their conception of what a "college education" could consist of.

What Are Some of the Reasons for Resisting Change?

A look at some of the reasons behind resistance to such a change would be useful in order that some of the pitfalls could be avoided in the change process.[4]

1. The objectives of the change are not clear.

In this situation people are just given what they should do and none of the reasons for making the change. Changes should be specific as well as clear to those involved.

2. The people involved in the change are not involved in the planning process.

This could be lessened by having task forces representing different target groups involved in the change responsible for managing certain facets of the change. These groups have specific responsibilities and are temporary. When the change is effected the task force is disbanded.[5]

3. The rewards for changing are not seen as adequate.

In this regard many institutions give faculty members released time for course development or special reimbursement when a course is developed. Payment during the summer for what would normally be a summer session is another method being used.

Other institutions allow faculty members to submit proposals and compete for funds in a special "instructional development" category of the budget.

4. People are afraid of failure.

To lessen this as a reason behind resistance, adequate training is necessary in the areas of course development and management of individualized instruction. Also, it is helpful to create an atmosphere where failure is not embarrassing and o.k. to allow people to try a new idea on a temporary basis. Given time to discuss their experiences with a program idea, most faculties will buy a useful strategy.

5. People do not trust the initiator of the change.

Here it is necessary to consider whether an internal or an external change agent should be used. Usually a combination of both internal and external persons is most effective. Sometimes the internal change agent is a respected faculty member who has the confidence of the faculty and the background to relate to faculty members' particular situations.

6. There are too many changes at one time.

It is often overwhelming to have many established procedures and policies changed at once. There gets to be a feeling on campus of change just for the sake of change or "here we go again!" There needs to be a balance between changes needed and the personal security needed by the people involved. A changing environment can be fun, but it is also frighteningly different. Imagine how a faculty member would feel if he learned that by next fall there is going to be a change in the grading policy,

the semester scheduling, class attendance regulations, that an accountability policy will be instituted, and that all the instructional programs will be self-paced! Actually a good model for change would be similar to designing a self-paced instructional sequence--from the simple to the complex and step by step.

7. People need to be dissatisfied to perceive the need for change.

If people are satisfied with the existing situation, the management of change is extremely difficult. An example could be the faculty member who thinks that it is his job to "weed out" the "less able" student and continually fails 60-70% of his students. In many instances a good deal of experimental exposure must preface change attempts. Take your faculty to another institution where they can observe first hand a similar program in operation. Find an innovative person on your staff and give him some extra incentive to design a course. Bring in outside consultants to make talks, show and discuss films, share ideas and expose the faculty to some of the useful concepts of change, e.g., problem solving, improved student learning.

One thing to remember in instituting change is that more often than not people are not resisting the change, they are resisting the way the change is managed.

How Do We Plan for Change?

In planning for any major change it is often helpful to consider the questions that one might ask himself if he were beginning on a trip.

1. Where are we now? Researching such questions as, How many students are staying in school? How many are completing their intended curricular program? How many courses are well organized and presented? What is our reputation as a college?

2. Where do we want to go? Here list goals and objectives. Also, consider at this point the assumptions--those givens, over which you have no control but which influence your behavior (market demands). Be cautious not to list things as givens when indeed you can have control over them. Don't let this be a "cop out" from attempting the change.

3. How are we going to get there? When considering this question decisions are made about strategies and the timetable of the strategies. Is the entire faculty to be trained in methods of individualizing instruction or just one department at a time in a type of pilot project? Do administrators institute changes such as grading and scheduling first, or do they wait until the need is felt by the faculty before proposing a change? Is the instructional program to be completely self-paced in three years? Five years?

4. Who is going to drive? This question involves the leadership of the proposed change. Is the Dean of Instruction responsible for monitoring the change? Is it necessary to create a new office of "faculty development" or "instructional development?" Should we use external consultants?

5. Who is going to pay for the trip? Here matters of financing the change are considered. Are federal funds available

for instructor training? Could there be a provision in the budget for "instructional innovation?" Before a statement of needed finance or facilities is drawn up there needs to be a careful analysis of the existing physical and personnel resources.

6. How will we know that we have arrived? What criteria will be accepted to indicate that our change effort has resulted in a significantly improved situation? After setting the criteria for success, the sub-objectives should be sequenced so that progress toward the stated goals can be documented. Such a series of sequenced statements could be: the percentage of faculty members trained in methods of implementing individualized instruction; the percentage of faculty using instructional objectives and criterion tests; the percentage of faculty systematically revising materials; the percentage of faculty using completely self-paced materials; the reduction in dropout and failure rates for the institution.

The conversion to a systematic approach to individualized instruction has been used here to help illustrate some of the dimensions of planned change. Instituting a new instructional process is complicated. It involved coordinated changes in many different areas of the institution. This paper has explored some of these areas by looking at the groups that are involved in the change and the new knowledge, skills, and attitudes that these groups would have to develop. It pointed out some of the reasons for resistance to change and some strategies for lessening some

of these resistances by drawing attention to strategies for managing change. Also, a framework for institutional planning was outlined which could be useful to an institution in implementing an innovative instructional program or managing other changes which affect the institution as a whole or sub-groups within it.

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4. This section was adapted from Session IV of the training program Implementing the Organization Renewal Process (ITORP) Developed by Gordon L. Lippitt and Leslie E. This (Washington, D.C.: Organization Renewal, Inc., it has been revised and in some areas rewritten for educational institutions. It has most recently been used at Southeastern Community College, Whiteville, North Carolina. It is a five session program concerned with: Understanding the Growth Potential of an Educational Institution as an Organization: Developing Communications for Improved Institutional Effectiveness: Developing Management Teamwork: Coping with Change: Implementing Renewal in an Institution. For further information on this program as a strategy for managing institutional change and growth, contact: Effective Leadership, Inc., Shadybrook House, P.O. Box 98, Mentor, Ohio 44060.

5. As a result of the ITORP program being conducted at Southeastern Community College, a number of institutional task forces were established to manage different areas of change. For information on the task force concept and its use in managing change, contact Dr. Oscar G. Mink, Resident Consultant, Southeastern Community College, Whiteville, North Carolina 28472.

SUMMARIES OF SPECIAL INTEREST DISCUSSION GROUPS (the following is an edited version of the notes of the recorders on points discussed by the Special Interest Groups.)

IMPLICATION OF STARTING A SYSTEMS APPROACH TO INSTRUCTION

Recorders:

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Burlington County College
Pemberton, N. J.

Dr. Saul Orkin
Somerset Community College
Somerville, N. J.

1. Approximately two-thirds of the group are in the process of implementing a systems approach to instruction. Of the remaining one-third, most plan to implement a systems approach soon.

2. Problems and cautions mentioned by deans who were present are as follows:

   a. Implementation by edict is not effective and creates dissension.

   b. Outside consultants are valuable.

   c. Funds should be set aside for faculty released time to develop materials.

   d. In initiating a systems approach, a realistic view of time constraints must be taken.

   e. Differences among various departments must be recognized. It might pay to begin in one or two departments rather than across the board.

   f. Evaluating the effectiveness of your efforts is important.

   g. Systems and accountability are new concepts requiring faculty training.

   h. Support and production facilities for in-house software must be provided.

   i. A "machine only" or "packaged programming only" approach won't work. A mixture of formats or modes is best.

   j. Don't forget <u>student</u> orientation to the new approach is needed.

k. Orient potential faculty to what you expect before they are hired.

l. Initially, faculty morale may be adversely affected. This is due to several factors: systems will require more effort on their part; they are teaching in ways they have not taught before, or in ways they have not experienced themselves. More of what they are doing is subject to evaluation and there will be a natural resistance to any change.

m. Setting up controlled experiments within the institution (and follow-up studies) to truly evaluate programs is critical, yet few institutions are equipped to do this.

n. Be prepared to cope with the "humanist" versus "behaviorist" arguments.

o. A clear definition of "systems" is seldom fully communicated.

p. Expect strong faculty resistance, expecially in the humanities and social science areas. Some areas, like business, secretarial science, math, science, physical education, and the technical-vocational areas, will make much faster progress.

q. The whole concept of systems in education is new and has not been perfected with regard to teaching-learning or management. Consequently, there are few good models to follow.

r. Most deans of instruction are not prepared to "manage" the change process.

s. The role of the department or division chairman is critical in the change process. Most are not adequately prepared to fulfill traditional roles, much less the new roles expected of them.

t. Can we use a "rural sociology model" for the time-consuming process of implementing change?

The "radical adopter"--few followers
The "early adopters"--good examples
The "peer spreaders"--growth group
The "cynics"--always some

u. Don't ask faculty to initially write "Magerian objectives". Instead, encourage them to try to define some relatively simple objectives. Create an investigative attitude among staff rather than exactly defining what they are to do - a la Mager.

v. The faculty must be intimately involved with materials development. Don't bring in specialized staff to do the job for them at the very beginning. Specialized staff are best utilized as consultants for faculty and in the production areas.

w. Process and product are closely interrelated.

x. Use feedback--analyze why objectives aren't met but don't create defensiveness and don't create polarities within the staff.

y. Some colleges had purchased hardware prematurely and complained that it wasn't being used.

3. Several deans mentioned some things they had found which helped.

a. Provide rewards for faculty who produce. These can be monetary, but need not be.

b. A merit pay system based upon evaluation of faculty performance, contribution to college and community and student learning, is helpful.

c. Provide instructional support services for faculty.

d. Don't be too rigid in systems application. All the answers are not in; all arguments are not settled.

e. Faculty training through workshops, such as those sponsored by the National Laboratory for Higher Education may help to accelerate change.

f. Several colleges have Educational Development Officers whose primary function is to assist faculty in improving instruction.

g. Develop different ways of calculating faculty load in order to take into consideration the unique ways in which faculty are functioning in a systems approach. Otherwise, you may inadvertently "punish" innovators.

DIFFERENT GRADING SYSTEMS

Recorders

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College of the Mainland
Texas City, Texas

Mr. Terrence A. Tollefson
National Laboratory for
Higher Education
Durham, North Carolina

1. One participant described the Santa Fe (Florida) nonpunitive grading system whereby the grade of F has been abolished. Instead, the X grade is used to indicate a student has not satisfactorily completed course requirements. It was reported that this was done partially because of a feeling that students should not be burdened with F's for the rest of their academic lives. Someone indicated that Santa Fe initially had some problems with this in that the University of Florida converted their X grade to F.

2. Another participant asked why the grade of NC (no credit) could not be used for the same purpose.

3. It was suggested that there are two categories of failure:

   a. The student who can't make it
   b. The student who doesn't do anything

   There is often no way to differentiate between the two types of failure in a nonpunitive grading system.

4. Someone else suggested that the same results as achieved by Santa Fe's nonpunitive system could be achieved under a more traditional grading system by allowing withdrawals during the first 14 weeks. This prompted a discussion regarding whether or not an instructor can or should withdraw a student.

5. It was felt that there should be agreement between a student and his teacher before a grade of "incomplete" was given.

6. The functions of grading were discussed and it was felt that there were five:

   a. Screening of students for colleges and universities

   b. Providing business and industry with some measure of achievement

   c. Satisfy students' needs to know how they are doing

   d. Need of faculty to evaluate and/or fail students

   e. Expressed need of students to be "ranked"

7. Various types of grading systems were discussed. These included:

   a. Pass-fail

   b. Other non-traditional or nonpunitive grading systems

   c. Criterion-referenced--with different criteria being established for different grades (A, B, C, etc.)

   d. Conventional A, B, C, D, F

8. Several of those present indicated that they used the grades of WI, WP, and I. A discussion of how these grades were used ensued.

   WI refers to Withdrew-Incomplete

   WP refers to Witndrew-Passing

   I is normally used to refer to Incomplete and is given when a student needed a little more time to complete course requirements

Some felt that the WI should remain on the record even if the student completed the course later. Others felt it should not remain on the record and that it should not be averaged into the student's GPA.

9. A point made was that the D as normally used gives no clear indication of a student's having learned anything.

10. The question was asked about where the pressure for changing the grading system came from.

11. Another person asked if there was any research on the effect of different grading systems on student motivation.

12. It was pointed out that in some universities, like Michigan State, students can repeat a course, and keep only their best grade.

13. The results of follow-up studies of graduates of "systems" institutions were discussed. These studies indicate that the students tended to do no better and no worse after transfer than before.

14. One issue discussed but never resolved was the question of whether a student has the right to fail.

15. Someone suggested that an A, B, C, system be used for transfer students and a P-F for career students, to which someone replied that that was all right if you were sure that the student wouldn't change his mind.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF VARIOUS PLANS FOR ORGANIZING THE INSTRUCTIONAL AREAS

Recorders:

Sister Eleanor Harrison
Cullman College
Cullman, Alabama

Dr. Bob Miller
Tarrant County Junior College
Fort Worth, Texas

1. Division chairmen should function both as educational development officers and as administrators.

2. A distinction was made between department and division chairmen, with department chairmen being defined as persons usually responsible for only one discipline and division chairmen as persons responsible for more than one discipline.

3. In order to properly fulfill their functions as specified in #1 above, division and department chairmen should not be expected to teach a full load.

4. Some of the organizational patterns represented include occupational programs, transfer programs, college transfer programs, and continuing education. The actual organizational pattern depends on the institution.

5. Roles of the department and division chairmen should be defined according to the needs of the college, expectations of faculty, and the role expectations of the chairmen.

6. Each institution should attempt to resolve the question of whether a department or division chairman should be an administrator or a faculty member.

7. Department and division chairmen are mid-management persons and are thus greatly in need of in-service training.

8. In institutions having a union, it is best to have department and division chairmen defined as administrators.

9. In negotiations, the needs of mid-management people are sometimes given little attention.

10. Deans and other administrators are not as free to negotiate as unions. We may need an AFA (American Federation of Administrators).

11. Do you elect a department chairman or do you appoint him? Advantages of appointing chairmen are:

    a. If you appoint him you can remove him; and

    b. You can be assured of continuity, whereas if chairmen are elected this may not be the case.

12. The type of organization you have should depend on what type of an institution you want (define the organization).

13. Do department chairmen burn out and therefore should they be periodically replaced? There is literature to support the position that leadership should be changed to avoid stagnation.

14. None of the deans in the group were really in favor of a rotating department chair if the chairman is expected to be an instructional leader.

15. Some felt that the department chairman should also be responsible for occasional research studies on faculty load, class size, etc.

16. The division and department chairmen should be given responsibility, trust, and accountability, and not be treated merely as figureheads.

17. You must look for potential in department and division chairmen and then educate them as educational leaders. Workshops and other training programs are greatly needed for mid-management personnel.

18. The League for Innovation is conducting workshops for mid-management personnel. Perhaps the National Laboratory for Higher Education should also hold workshops for those whose responsibilities fall in the mid-management category.

19. Division and department chairmen need to learn how to delegate work to secretarial staff--to free themselves from menial tasks. Faculty and students should receive more of a dean's time.

20. The systems approach to instruction may require even more paperwork from the chairmen.

21. The dean should be out on the firing line instead of operating from behind a desk. Up the Organization was cited as an example of how an executive can function without an office.

22. There is a limit (7-9) to the number of division or department chairmen who should report to the dean of instruction.

23. What if you did away with department and division chairmen and replaced them with two or three associate deans? Would you be more effective? In other words, would having generalists rather than specialists be better? One dean indicated that if he had taken the money he had invested in released time for division chairmen and had employed three assistant deans he could have been twice as effective.

24. New titles for division chairmen are needed. Someone else said that the same care should be taken in recruiting a division chairman as a dean of instruction.

25. The role of the faculty senate vis-a-vis the dean of instruction was discussed. The actions of each often conflict with those of the other. Further, when a senate makes a resolution which is voted on and passed, the dean is often left with the task of implementing a policy or procedure with which he disagrees and to which he had no input.

26. The organizational patterns represented by the group included:

    a. faculty to dean;

    b. faculty to division chairman to dean;

    c. faculty to department chairman to division chairman to dean.

Further, the organization within the instructional areas varied in the way subject fields were grouped. For example, within the institutions of the participants', the following patterns were represented:

a. integrated divisions consisting of college transfer, career courses, and developmental courses;

b. divisions and departments consisting solely of college transfer or career faculty.

It was the consensus of those present that no one pattern was best and that the organizational pattern chosen should vary with the size of the institution, with the people in it, and with the institutions' purposes and objectives. Most favored keeping their present organization.

FACULTY EVALUATION

Dr. Wilmot F. Oliver, Recorder:

1. Most of the discussion on this topic revolved around the concepts of "means" versus "ends" evaluation of faculty.

2. "Means" evaluation was defined as evaluation which focuses largely on what the faculty member does, while "ends" evaluation focuses on what he accomplishes.

3. A management-by-objectives approach was discussed whereby a faculty member would be evaluated on the extent to which he achieved objectives previously suggested by him and agreed to by his supervisor.

4. Two evaluation systems were discussed in detail. These were the systems of Burlington County College (New Jersey) and the College of the Mainland (Texas). The Burlington system included criteria in four areas: (1) instruction, (2) contributions to college and community, (3) professional growth, and (4) interpersonal relationships. The College of the Mainland system was job-description oriented. Specific responsibilities were designated, and the faculty member was evaluated on the extent to which these responsibilities were met.

5. Several points regarding evaluation were agreed to by most of those present. These included:

   a. Institutional goals must be considered in developing an evaluation system;

   b. Evaluation should be a continuous process, not something limited to the period from October or November to February;

   c. Faculty should be involved in the development of criteria for evaluation;

   d. Self-evaluations should be a part of any evaluation effort.

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire Responses
Regarding the Feasibility of a
Deans of Instruction Workshop

The following is a summary of the total responses from 124 persons who responded to the questionnaire accompanying the letter announcing the workshop. As can be seen, the conference apparently met a strongly perceived need.

	Total Responses 124	Total
1.	I think the idea of having a conference especially for deans of instruction is:	
	- A good one	121
	- Too restrictive	1
2.	I think the plan for the workshop (no speeches, etc.) is:	
	- A good one	100
	- A bad idea	0
	- I prefer to reserve judgement	21
3.	I think the $35 fee is:	
	- Too high	15
	- About right	91
4.	I think the idea of sponsoring workshops for department or division chairmen is:	
	- A good one	113
	- Not something our institution would be interested in	15
5.	Of the following suggested topics I am most interested in:	
	- Different grading systems	83
	- The effect of collective bargaining on institution and the dean	51

- Faculty evaluation	108
- Implications of starting a systems approach to instruction	89
- Ideas for recruiting minority faculty	29
- Advantages and disadvantages of various plans for organizing the instructional area	82
- In-house curriculum change procedures	65
- Pros and cons of various calendar plans	55

APPENDIX B

CONFERENCE EVALUATION RESULTS

Prepared by

Vicki Fuller
Junior and Community College Division

The NLHE Workshop for Deans of Instruction (April 26-28) was evaluated by means of self-report evaluation forms administered to the 31 participants on the last day. The instrument consisted of 16 items, six of which permitted respondents to write on comments and suggestions for improvement of future workshops. The results, in general, were very positive, and it appeared that most participants were enthusiastic about their experience. The workshop was believed by the participants to have met their objectives to a great extent. All felt (and 94% were convinced) that the session was relevant to their needs.

Respondents to the questionnaire felt (90%) that enough staff persons were available to conduct the workshop effectively. With regard to the two main components of the workshop--interaction and discussion with authors of papers and idea sharing in special interest sessions--the response was overwhelmingly positive. That is, 86% and 100% respectively, thought these learning methods to be effective. Most reactions to the papers themselves fell somewhere between "of some value" and "of great value".

The organization of the workshop was rated "good" to "very good" by most. Along this line, two people advised more preplanning and structure for similar efforts in the future, and one person noted that he particularly liked the informal, unstructured atmosphere.

It was found that the items reflecting the greatest concern on the part of participants seemed to focus upon time. They

indicated in their responses that they might have been doubtful about sufficient time for interaction with the staff members. In addition, seven comments were received which pointed out the apparent lack of time to read and digest materials and to interact with leaders and other participants. Other suggestions called for more input from participants and more materials and process sharing. In regard to the latter, it may prove beneficial in the future to ask participants in advance to bring these materials with them to the workshop. It appeared that lack of reading time was seen by the most participants as a deficiency. Six persons expressed the need to receive in advance (by mail) the papers to be discussed, and most were uncertain about the adequacy of the advance information which they had received. Possibly in the same vein, three others suggested that the presenters of papers give brief summaries or overviews before beginning any discussion.

There were a few more issues covered on the evaluation form. The physical arrangements (transportation, accommodations, etc) were rated as fair by most of the respondents, and three suggestions dealt with this item, so it probably deserves consideration. With respect to the number of participants for a workshop of this type, 43% stated 30-45 persons to be optimum and 32% more responded 45-60. Five persons suggested smaller discussion groups, and one person suggested larger groups. Two other comments indicated the need to group participants by age and/or size of the institution. Audio-visual materials to aid presentations and simulation game activities were suggested twice.

In conclusion, it appears that to most people involved, the Workshop for Deans of Instruction was a profitable experience. That is, it was rated as interesting to 15 and enjoyable to 14 more. Only one person felt that the session was a waste of time. Some factors which should be carefully examined in planning other workshops are: (1) receipt of papers in advance, and (2) sufficient time for interaction and exchange of ideas. In general, however, the workshop seemed to have been planned and conducted effectively.

APPENDIX C

Deans of Instruction Workshop
April 26-28, 1972
National Laboratory for Higher Education

Papers presented by the following

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APPENDIX D

PROGRAM

Wednesday Evening: April 26, 1972	7:00 - 9:00 p.m.	Arrival and Registration Get-Acquainted Social
Thursday April 27, 1972	9:00 - 9:15 a.m.	Introductions and Welcome: Terrence A. Tollefson Director, Junior and Community College Division National Laboratory for Higher Education
	9:15 - 10:15	Discussion of First Paper: (Total Group) Albert A. Canfield Professor of Higher Education Institute of Higher Education University of Florida
	10:15 - 10:45	Break
	10:45 - 12:00	Special Interest Groups
	12:00 - 1:30 p.m.	Lunch
	1:30 - 2:45	Discussion of Second Paper: (Total Group) Michael I. Schafer Dean for Instruction Muskegon Community College
	2:45 - 3:15	Break
	3:15 - 4:30	Special Interest Groups (Same topics as morning session)
	4:30 - 6:00	Social Hour

(continued next page)

(continuation)

Friday April 28, 1972	9:00 - 10:15 a.m.	Discussion of Third Paper: (Total Group) James O. Hammons Dean of the College Burlington County College
	10:15 - 10:45	Break
	10:45 - 12:00	Special Interest Groups (Second half of topics)
	12:00 - 1:30 p.m.	Lunch
	1:30 - 2:45	Discussion of Fourth Paper: (Total Group) Barbara P. Washburn Dean of Educational Development, Mitchell College
	2:45 - 3:15	Break
	3:15 - 4:30	Special Interest Groups (Same topics as morning session)
	4:30	Adjourn